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ABSTRACT

Expanding work opportunities, changing family structure, double digit inflation, and relaxed attitudes toward the appropriateness of women's work outside the home have contributed to increased labor force participation of women in recent years. Recent studies indicate that despite traditional attitudes ascribed to rural areas, trends in increasing labor force participation apply to nonmetro as well as to metro area women. To a large extent, growth in nonmetro women's labor force participation can be attributed to the increased number of manufacturing firms in rural areas. Although fluctuating within the recessionary period, labor force participation of both metro and nonmetro area women continued to increase from 1973 through 1976. It was, however, the differences between metro and nonmetro areas in patterns of and underlying reasons for fluctuations throughout the cycle which will be important to policy makers; the composition of both the labor force and the occupational and industrial distribution of opportunities determined the variations. Nonmetro areas have witnessed tremendous increases in the number of women employed, but these increases have resulted in greater concentrations of females in clerical, operative, and service related occupations, often thought of as "dead end" jobs. Without attention to job training and skills development, women may become more heavily concentrated in those jobs which are characterized by lower levels of pay and little chance for advancement. (BR)

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Effects of the Recent Recession on the Labor Force Participation of Nonmetropolitan Women

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Changes in Women's Labor Force Participation

Expanding work opportunities, changing family structure, double digit inflation, and relaxed attitudes toward the appropriateness of women's work outside the home have contributed to increased labor force participation of women in recent years. Whereas in 1940, only 27.9 percent of the female population, 16 years and over, was in the labor force, by 1977, this figure has risen to 48.4 percent. 1/ This change represents an increase of approximately 25.8 million women in the labor force, either employed or seeking a job.

Increasing numbers of females in the labor force have been accompanied by changing patterns of participation by age, marital status and presence and age of children. Prior to the 1940's, the composition of women in the labor force consisted mainly of women either single or married without any children. By the 1950's the pattern was somewhat altered as women with grown children, whose child-bearing years had essentially ended (those 35 and over), comprised a large portion of those females entering the labor force. And between 1964 and 1974, an increasing proportion of the labor force was composed of young mothers with pre-school age children. 2/

Recent studies 3/ indicate that despite traditional attitudes ascribed to rural areas, 4/ trends in increasing labor force participation apply to nonmetro as well as metro areas women. However, differences persist in the level and composition of those in the workforce by residence. Although the nonmetro-metro gap is closing over time, nonmetro labor force participation rates of women remain below those of their metro counterparts. From 1960 to 1970, the rate increased from 36.2 percent to 40.8 percent in metro areas and from 30.3 percent

to 36.0 percent in nonmetro areas.[5] More recent data indicate that in 1977, the gap diminished to 2.9 percentage points as female labor force participation reached 49.4 percent in metro areas and 46.5 percent in nonmetro areas. [6]

While increasing rates of labor force participation would seemingly denote positive advances in the employment status of women, the types of jobs which women accept in a particular industry have implications for their wage levels, career advancement potential and particularly the stability of their employment throughout a recessionary period. Employment in certain industries, such as manufacturing, tends to fluctuate with changes in economic conditions while government employment tends to be relatively stable, immune to variance in economic activity. Therefore, the industrial and occupational structure of the nonmetro economy should provide an indication of expected employment stability during the 1974-1976 recession.

Industrial and Occupational Job Growth

To a large extent, growth in nonmetro women's labor force participation can be attributed to the increased number of manufacturing firms in rural areas. With improved interstate transit systems, manufacturing firms were able to avail themselves of lower taxes and a lower cost labor pool in rural areas. This increase in manufacturing, further provided the impetus to the development of support industries in rural areas, increasing the demand for female employees.

Between 1960 and 1970, manufacturing accounted for over a fourth of women's employment growth in nonmetro counties. In contrast, only 7 percent of metropolitan women's employment growth was in this industry. For more sparsely populated nonmetro areas, manufacturing was more important, representing 39 percent of job growth.

Although manufacturing constituted an important source of initial employment, it was as important as a catalyst to developing new service sector jobs for women. In the sixties, the professional services sector contributed almost 45 percent of job growth. Professional services is a broad category which covers health care, education and social services. (See Appendix table 1)

Within these industries, there are a variety of occupations utilized. For example nondurable manufacturing employs a larger proportion of operatives than does professional services. These occupational groups define the function of the jobs performed and therefore determine the types of skills and training needed and subsequent wages received.

Throughout the sixties nonmetro women became more concentrated in three occupational groups, clerical, service and operatives where over 80 percent of employment growth occurred. Gains occurred in the professional category, however, such gains were relatively smaller in nonmetro than metro areas. Furthermore, many of these professional jobs in nonmetro areas may be filled by inmigrants who move to rural areas with the firm relocating there. (Appendix table 2)

Variations in the existing industrial and occupational structure of job opportunities, along with differences in workers' personal characteristics, suggest that women in metro and nonmetro areas may have different experiences during the recession in terms of unemployment and labor force participation.

CPS quarterly data will be used here to analyze those characteristics of the labor force which contribute to differences between metro and nonmetro area women's response to changing economic conditions throughout the most recent economic downturn. Disaggregated data

should provide indicators of relative hardship incurred with adverse economic conditions.

Based on the relatively greater concentration in lower status occupations by nonmetro women during the 1960's, one would expect to find higher rates of unemployment, reduced hours due to economic reasons and greater incidence of worker discouragement. Furthermore, after a review of existing literature,one might speculate that as the general unemployment rate rises, women in nonmetro areas will not enter the labor force but that metro women will continue to increase their participation. This expectation is based on the theory that due to the small size of nonmetro labor markets, job vacancy information will be disseminated more rapidly than in metro areas and that nonmetro women will either take whatever jobs are available at the prevailing wage or discontinue their search. 7/ In either case, worker reaction reduces the number counted as unemployed. It is a further contention that marital status will influence labor force activity. The greater incidence of women married with spouse present in nonmetro areas may somewhat alleviate pressure on nonmetro women to search for jobs during adverse economic conditions. Metro women, however, with a greater proportion of single women and female household heads will, due to eocnomic need, enter or remain in the labor force searching for employment longer than nonmetro women.

Unemployment During the Recession

The recessionary period is important in respect to the climate or environment in which women's job expectations influence labor force behavior. As general background, national economic activity reached a peak in the fourth quarter 1973, and began a downward plunge which terminated in the first quarter of 1975. While the downward cycle

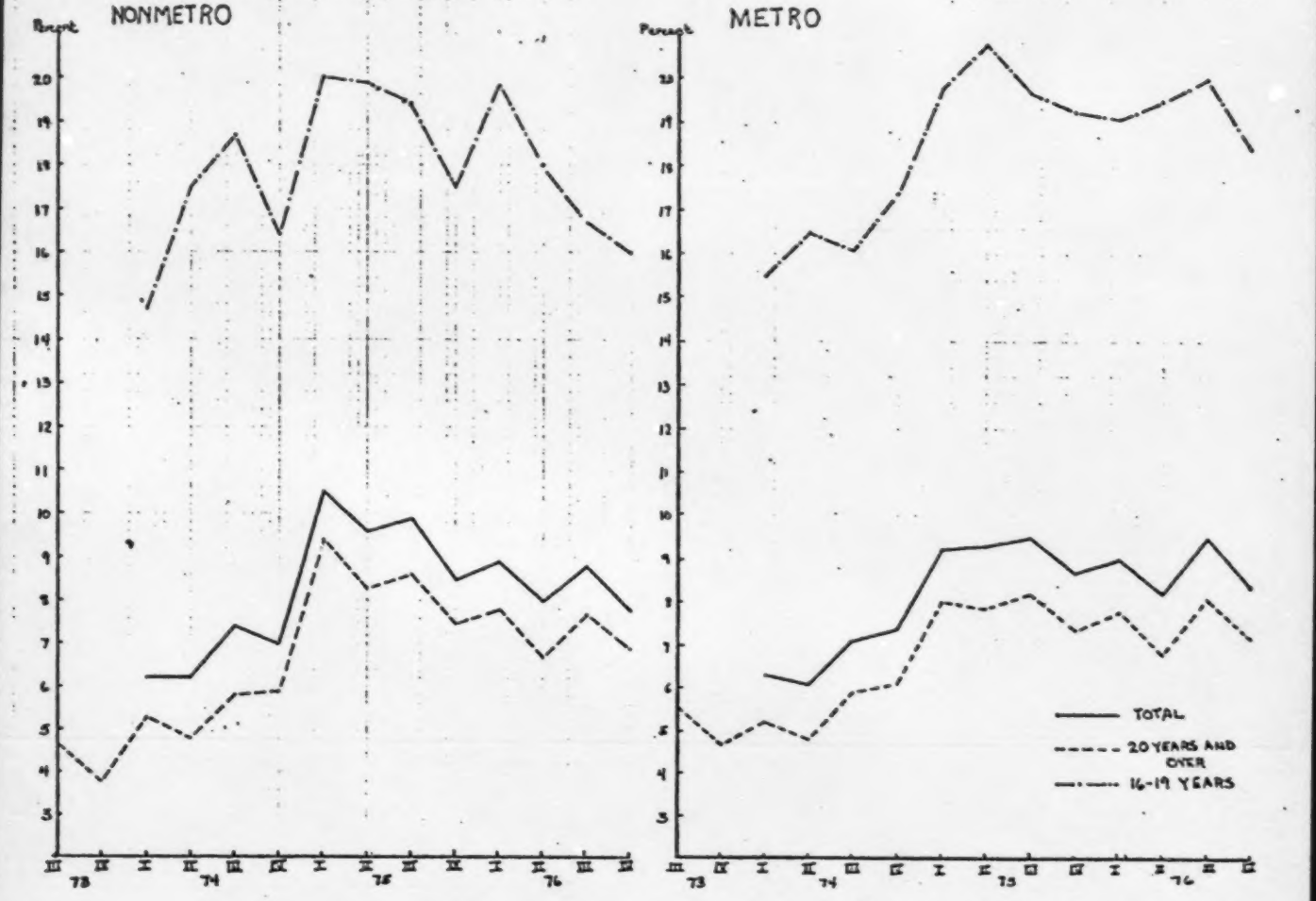
was very brisk, lasting only five quarters, the economic expansion which followed it (began after the first quarter 1975 trough) was very sluggish. Even by the fourth quarter of 1977, the economy failed to attain its pre-recessionary low levels of unemployment. However, as measured by unemployment rates, recovery was much swifter in nonmetro than metro areas.

The female unemployment rate in nonmetro areas rose sharply to 10.5 percent in the first quarter 1975 and declined to 7.8 percent by the fourth quarter 1976 after some month-to-month fluctuations. In contrast the metro female unemployment rate rose more slowly, reaching 9.5 percent of the third quarter 1975, lagging the nonmetro apex by two months. But unlike the nonmetro rate, metro unemployment lingered at high levels, reaching 9.5 percent again in the third quarter 1976. (See figure 1).

Teenagers contributed strongly to unemployment. Representing approximately 12 percent of the metro labor force and about 10 percent of nonmetro's, teenagers experienced peak unemployment rates of 20.8 percent and 20 percent, respectively. Furthermore, the metro teenage unemployment rate for females aided in keeping the total metro rate for females at continuing high levels.

Through the quick drop in the unemployment rate, nonmetro females appeared to adjust to the economic stress more rapidly than their metro counterparts. But this reduction should not be misread as a singular indicator of well being. Much, of the unemployment or underemployment of nonmetro women was disguised, not being counted in unemployment statistics. That is, at the height of the recession, a higher proportion of nonmetro than metro women were placed on part time

FIGURE 1... UNEMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN BY RESIDENCE



schedules for economic reasons(7.0 versus 4.7) and dropped out of the labor force because they were unable to find a job (2.7 versus 1.8).

Duration of Unemployment

Looking at the duration of unemployment there was little difference in the percentage unemployed more than 15 weeks although the proportion in nonmetro areas was slightly higher than in metro. However, more salient is the distribution of the unemployed by reason. While approximately 45 percent of the metro unemployed lost their job, the figure for nonmetro areas was 49 percent. A greater percentage of metro than nonmetro's unemployed women were new entrants (11.3 percent vs. 6.9 percent). However, a vast majority of women in this category for both areas were in the 16-19 year age bracket.

Occupational and Industrial Source of Unemployment

Of those unemployed, 43 percent of nonmetro females were formerly employed in manufacturing jobs. Another 19 percent had been in wholesale and retail trade and 14 percent had been in the service sector. By occupation, 38 percent were operatives, 20 percent were service workers and 19 percent were clerical workers. Relative to nonmetro areas, metro areas had a lower percentage of unemployed operatives and service workers, but a greater share of clerical workers and women who had never worked. Thus, the increasing concentration of females in jobs as operatives, clerical and service workers may have negative effects on their employability during recessionary periods. (table 1)

Comparisons of Male-Female Unemployment

The industrial and occupational mix of job opportunities

Table 1.... Percent Distribution of Employment and Unemployment for Males and Females in Nonmetropolitan Areas by Occupation, March 1975

Occupation	Males		Females	
	Employed	Unemployed	Employed	Unemployed
Total Employed	100	100	100	100
White-Collar Workers	32.1	10.1	53.4	27.7
Professional and Tech.	10.5	2.2	14.1	2.8
Managers and Admin.	12.2	2.4	4.5	1.3
Sales Workers	4.7	2.3	6.8	4.4
Clerical Workers	4.7	3.2	28.0	19.2
Blue Collar Workers	49.0	75.6	18.3	42.6
Craftsmen-Kindred	21.0	24.3	1.5	2.1
Operatives	13.3	22.6	14.5	38.0
Transport-Equipt.	6.7	8.3	.8	.3
Nonfarm Laborers	8.0	20.5	1.5	2.3
Private Household Wkrs.	.04	0	4.6	1.6
Service Workers	7.2	5.9	21.5	20.2
Farm Workers	11.6	4.9	2.3	.6
Never Worked		3.5		7.3

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey, March 1975, Unpublished Data

in rural areas may adversely impact not only on females but also on males in these areas. Comparisons between males and females show that the nonmetro female unemployment rate throughout the period was higher than the rate for nonmetro males by an average of 2.5 percentage points. Females accounted for 44.1 percent of the unemployed and over 54 percent of the discouraged workers in the first quarter of 1975, but represented only 38.6 percent of the nonmetro labor force. It is unclear, however, that this higher unemployment for females is influenced solely by recessionary forces. Examining unemployment rates at the turning point of the expansion (third quarter 1973) and the turning point of the recession (1st quarter 1975), shows the gap between males and females actually declined at the recession high. While at the height of the recession, when the unemployment rate peaked in the first quarter 1975, the male-female unemployment rate differential was 2 percentage points, in the third quarter of 1973, an economic peak period, the gap was 2.7 percentage points. While the magnitude of this difference may not be statistically significant, the fact that the difference is wider in an economic expansion than in a contraction is important.

For males, as well as females, concentration in the more volatile manufacturing sector in blue collar jobs contributes to high unemployment. This tended to close the male-female unemployment rate differential during the recessionary period. Approximately one fourth of nonmetro male employment was in manufacturing, yet of those unemployed, over 35 percent had been in manufacturing. And while 49 percent of the employed listed their occupation as blue collar related, over 75 percent of the unemployed had been formerly employed in this category of work. So a disproportionate share of unemployment arises for both nonmetro males and females from manufacturing and blue collar occupations, particularly operatives.

Labor Force Participation During the Recession

In an environment of high unemployment and reduced employment opportunities, it expected that the trend toward increasing labor force participation of females would be stemmed. But as one recent article on women in the work force stated: "Over the past quarter of a century, women's labor force participation has continued to increase steadily despite several short term cyclical pauses. The most recent recession (1973-1975) was atypical, however, in that instead of halting employment growth as in previous recessions, the number and proportion of women in the labor force continued to rise dramatically, outpacing the substantial gains in the female population." 8 /

While both metro and nonmetro area women experienced growth in labor force participation rates in the long run, differences were exhibited in the fluctuations in this trend throughout the course of the recession. Cursory examination of a plot of labor force participation rates for metro and nonmetro women shown together with quarterly changes in unemployment rates indicates that this trend did not apply to nonmetro area women. Women's labor force participation in nonmetro areas was more volatile, fluctuating inversely to changes in the unemployment rate. (See figure 2)

On closer examination it appears that for nonmetro women changes in labor force participation may be influenced more by seasonal fluctuations than by recessionary forces. Nonmetro female labor force participation falls off in the first quarter of each year, attributable, at least in part, to reliance on retail trade and services for employment opportunities during the Thanksgiving and Christmas holiday. (See Figure 3). Contrary to the nonmetro pattern, metro participation rates show no seasonal fluctuations. With one exception in the first quarter of 1975, the participation rate rose continuously

Figure 2...Unemployment and Women's Labor Force Participation

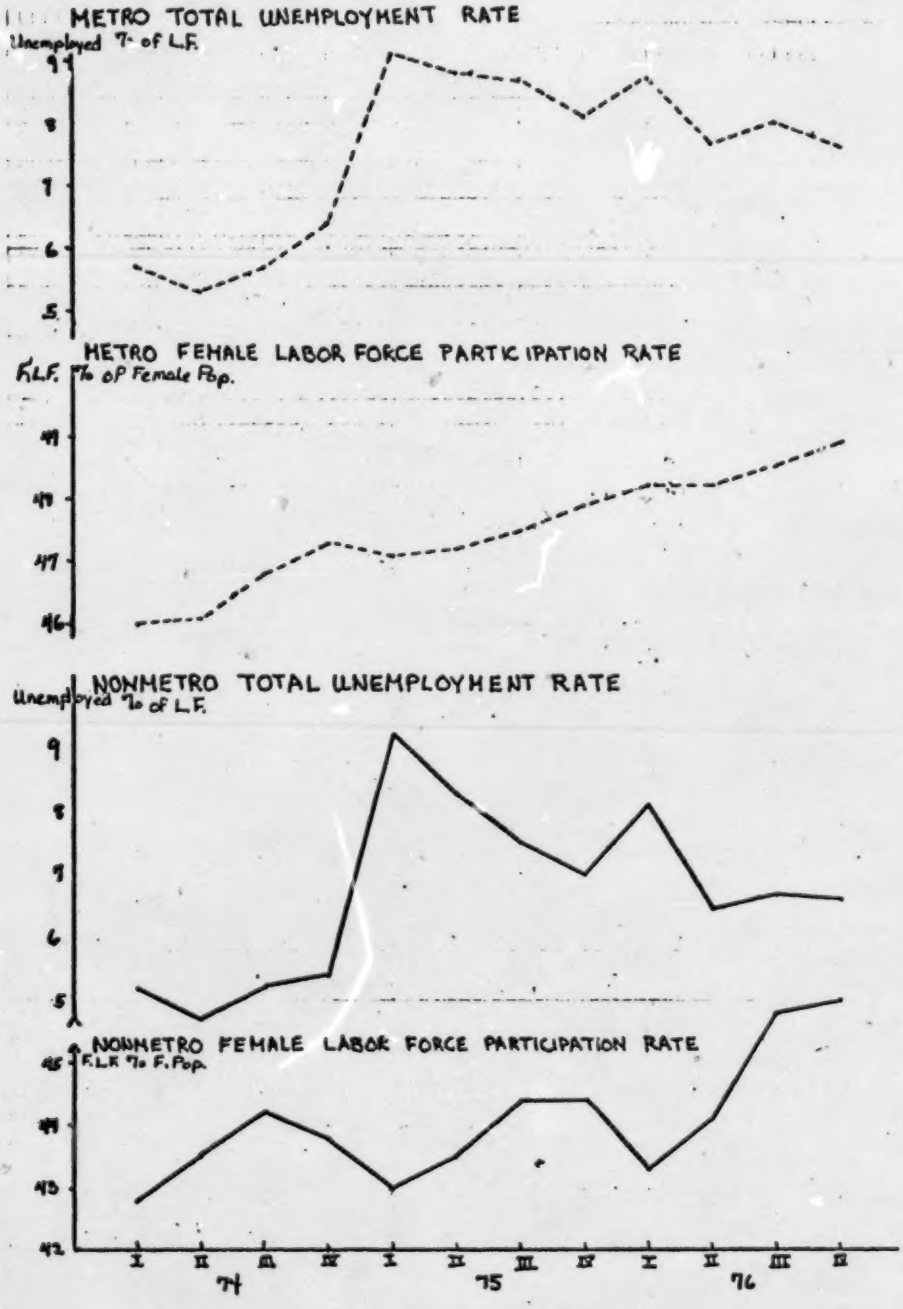
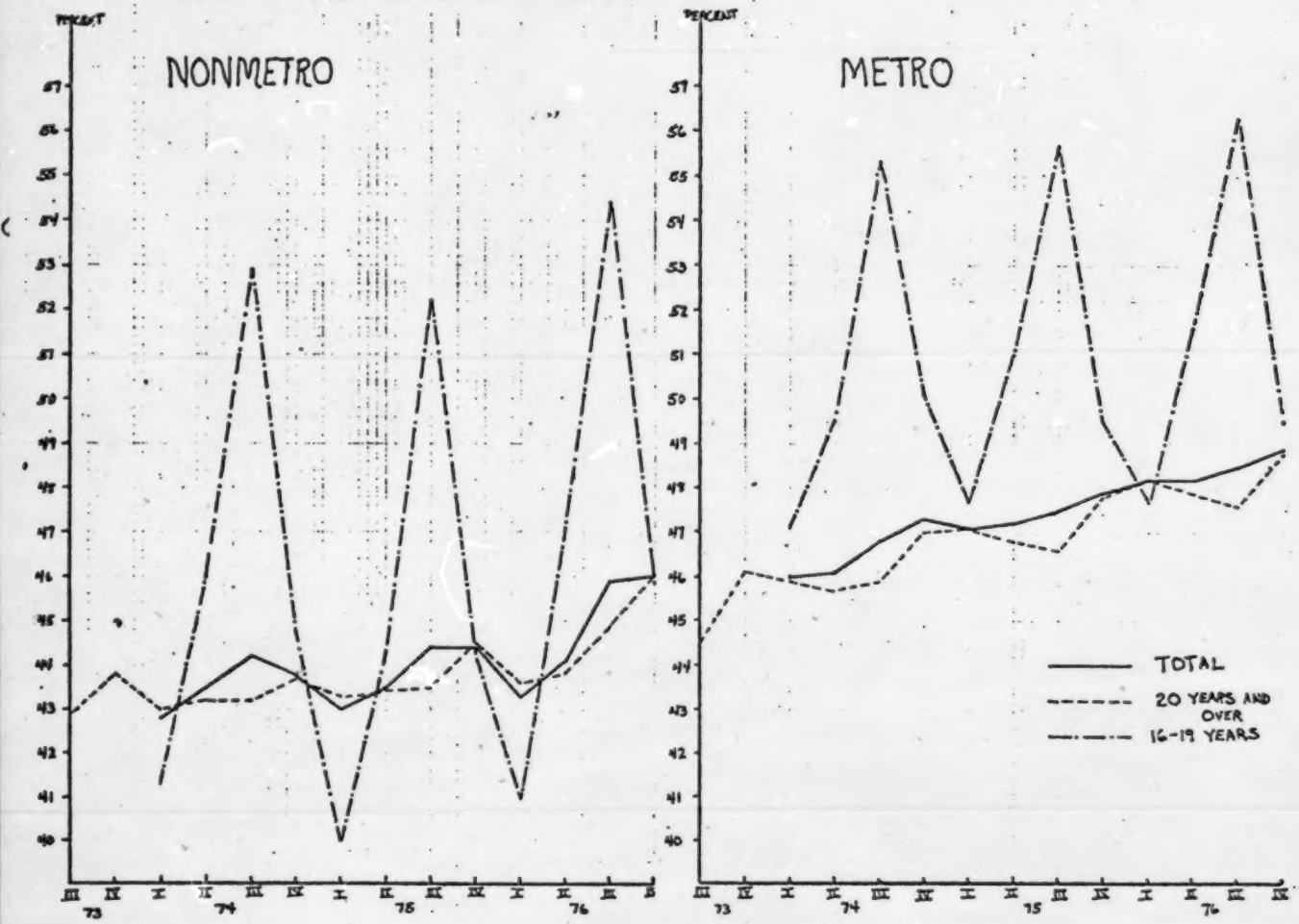


FIGURE 3... LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN BY RESIDENCE



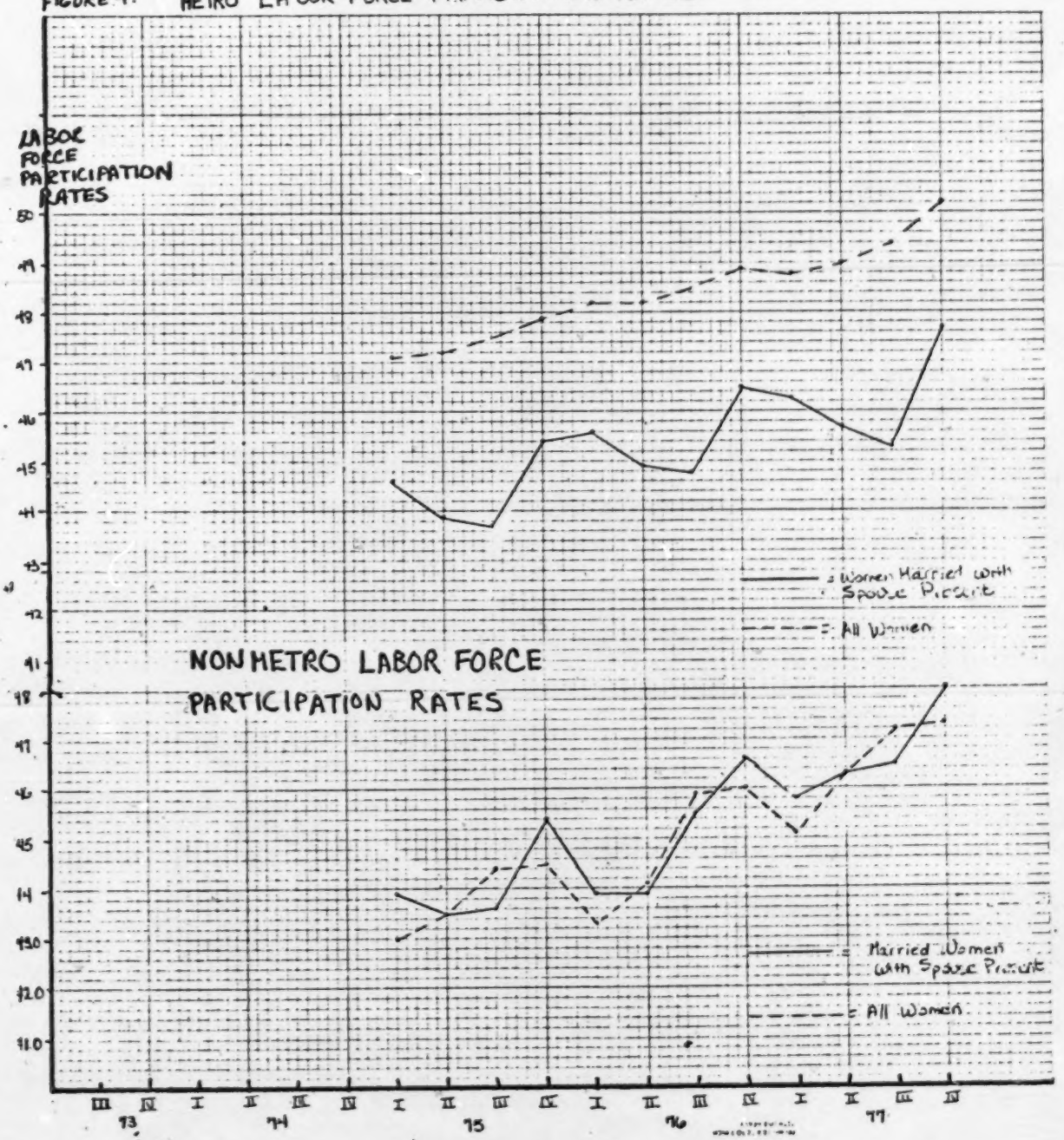
Yet in conjunction with the graph of the unemployment rate (figure 2) it appears that nonmetro's female labor force participation rate increases inversely to the general unemployment rate. It indicates that as the general unemployment level rises, women perceive the tightness in the labor market and refrain from search. Metro women, however, seem to increase their labor force participation irrespective of changes in the unemployment rate.

Labor Force Participation by Marital Status

Disaggregation of labor force participation by marital status may clarify the differences between metro and nonmetro area women in their response to changes in the unemployment rate. The population of nonmetro areas is composed of a substantially higher proportion of women married with spouse present than that of metro areas (64.3 percent versus 58.3 in first quarter '75). This difference is greater in the labor force where the concentration of married women with spouse present is 65.8 percent in nonmetro areas compared to 55.1 percent in metro areas. Such a greater incidence of single women in metro areas may imply a greater dependence on employment for earnings and thereby aid in explaining why total female labor participation rates in metro areas continued to increase during the recession.

Disaggregation of labor force participation rates by those married with spouse present demonstrates greater similarities between metro and nonmetro areas than is the case for all women participants. The pattern of participation for metro married women closely resembles that of nonmetro married women (see figure 4). Therefore, we can hypothesize that behavior across residence varied little when the labor force is adjusted for demographic differences, but variations in the

FIGURE 4: METRO LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES



composition of the labor force ar the key to understanding differences in gross aggregates.

Husband's Employment and Family Income

There was little difference between metro and nonmetro area women concerning the correlation between husband and wife's employment status. For example, for those women whose spouse was unemployed, approximately 50 percent of the wives were either employed or looking for work. (in nonmetro areas the percent of women unemployed with spouse unemployed was slightly higher than for metro area women).

Differences existed, however, by residence in the income attainment of couples in the same employment status combinations. A greater percentage of couples with two wage earners employed had incomes above $15,000 in metro areas than in nonmetro areas (67 percent vs 50 percent respectively). For every employment status combination, except where both the husband and wife were not in the labor force, nonmetro areas had a higher concentration of couples in income levels below $10,000 (this exception noted, results from the preponderant concentration in the lowest income category). But of all women either employed or seeking work in nonmetro areas, 84 percent had husbands who were employed. (table 2)

Lower levels of income attainment for nonmetro families seem to be influenced by two major factors; (1) desire for part time work due to the presence of children in the home and (2) the concentration of women workers in nonmetro areas in low wage jobs.

The similarity between metro and nonmetro areas in the employment status of wives with spouse present is unexpected due to the higher nonmetro

Table 2 Number and Percent by Income of Married Women with Spouse Present by Employment Status of Each, March 1975, Nonmetropolitan Areas

Employment Status	0 to 5,999	6,000 to 9,999	10,000 to 14,999	15,000 to 24,999	25,000 +	Total
Spouse Employed						
Women Employed	360,875	758,938	1,582,220	2,043,600	616,157	5,360,790
	6.7	14.2	29.5	38.1	11.5	
Women Unemployed	69,728	110,766	171,137	118,922	13,571	484,124
	14.4	22.9	35.3	24.6	2.8	
Women Not in Labor Force	899,170	1,302,481	1,690,666	1,454,098	525,796	5,872,211
	15.3	22.2	28.8	24.8	9.0	
Spouse Unemployed						
Women Employed	37,560	106,541	123,333	75,671	7,850	350,855
	10.7	30.4	35.2	21.5	2.2	
Women Unemployed	24,842	45,537	35,292	18,510	0	124,181
	20.0	36.7	28.4	14.9	0	
Women Not in Labor Force	145,380	167,124	117,160	41,280	1,472	472,416
	30.8	35.4	24.8	8.7	.3	
Spouse Not in Labor Force						
Women Employed	146,855	203,727	151,607	87,596	25,046	614,831
	23.9	33.1	24.7	14.2	4.1	
Women Unemployed	20,064	21,930	9,267	4,719	0	55,980
	35.8	39.2	16.6	8.4	0	
Women Not in Labor Force	1,338.404	602,073	368,755	177,683	51,835	2,538,750
	52.7	23.7	14.5	7.0	2.0	

Table 2 Number and Percent by Income of Married Women with Spouse Present by Employment Status of Each, March 1975 Metropolitan Areas

Employment Status	0 to 5,999	6,000 to 9,999	10,000 to 14,999	15,000 to 24,999	25,000 +	Total
Spouse Employed						
Women Employed	317,699	927,860	2,355,213	4,968,961	2,466,280	11,036,013
	2.9	8.4	21.3	45.0	22.3	100
Women Unemployed	70,789	120,755	267,772	316,902	82.685	858,903
	8.2	14.1	31.2	36.9	9.6	100
Women Not in Labor Force	831,278	1,860,857	3,741,405	4,248,378	1,922,081	12,603,999
	6.6	14.8	29.7	33.7	15.2	100
Spouse Unemployed						
Women Employed	53,412	146,404	236,654	284,575	64,571	785,616
	6.8	18.6	30.1	36.2	8.2	100
Women Unemployed	36,424	57,410	69,109	38,580	6,372	207,895
	17.5	27.6	33.2	18.6	3.1	100
Women Not in Labor Force	186,015	271,001	264,792	149,024	42,768	913,600
	20.4	29.7	29.0	16.3	4.7	100
Spouse Not in Labor Force						
Women Employed	169,976	336,042	304,301	256,023	91,460	1,157,802
	14.7	29.0	26.3	22.1	7.9	100
Women Unemployed	15,471	19,528	14,431	15,256	5,028	69,714
	22.2	28.0	20.7	21.9	7.2	100
Women Not in Labor Force	1,595,589	1,186,518	652,473	432,705	172,044	4,039,329
	39.5	29.4	16.2	10.7	4.3	100

fertility rates (2,235 births per 1,000 wives in nonmetro areas in 1971). 9/ One might expect lower rates of participation with higher fertility. But unexpected metro-nonmetro similarities may be partially explained by desires for part-time employment based on the presence of children in the home. Of all the women who are actually employed, 30.7 percent of nonmetro and 26.2 percent of metro women are on part-time schedules. Part of this difference may be attributed to variations in marital status, but part occurs because a greater percentage of nonmetro women have been given reduced working hours due to economic reasons, particularly in the first quarter of 1975. Furthermore, desires for part-time work based on the presence of children at home may help to explain lower earnings and the greater concentration of nonmetro women in clerical, service and operative jobs.

Concentration of employment growth in service, operative and some clerical jobs contributes to the concentration of women in occupations with relatively low wages. Current Population Survey data show that from 1969 to 1973, the mean earnings of employed nonmetro females actually declined by $197, while earnings for nonmetro males increased by $354. While earnings, unadjusted for price, decreased for all metro residents, metro females' losses were smaller than nonmetro female losses. In 1974 average earnings of nonmetro females were $3953, less than half those of males.10/

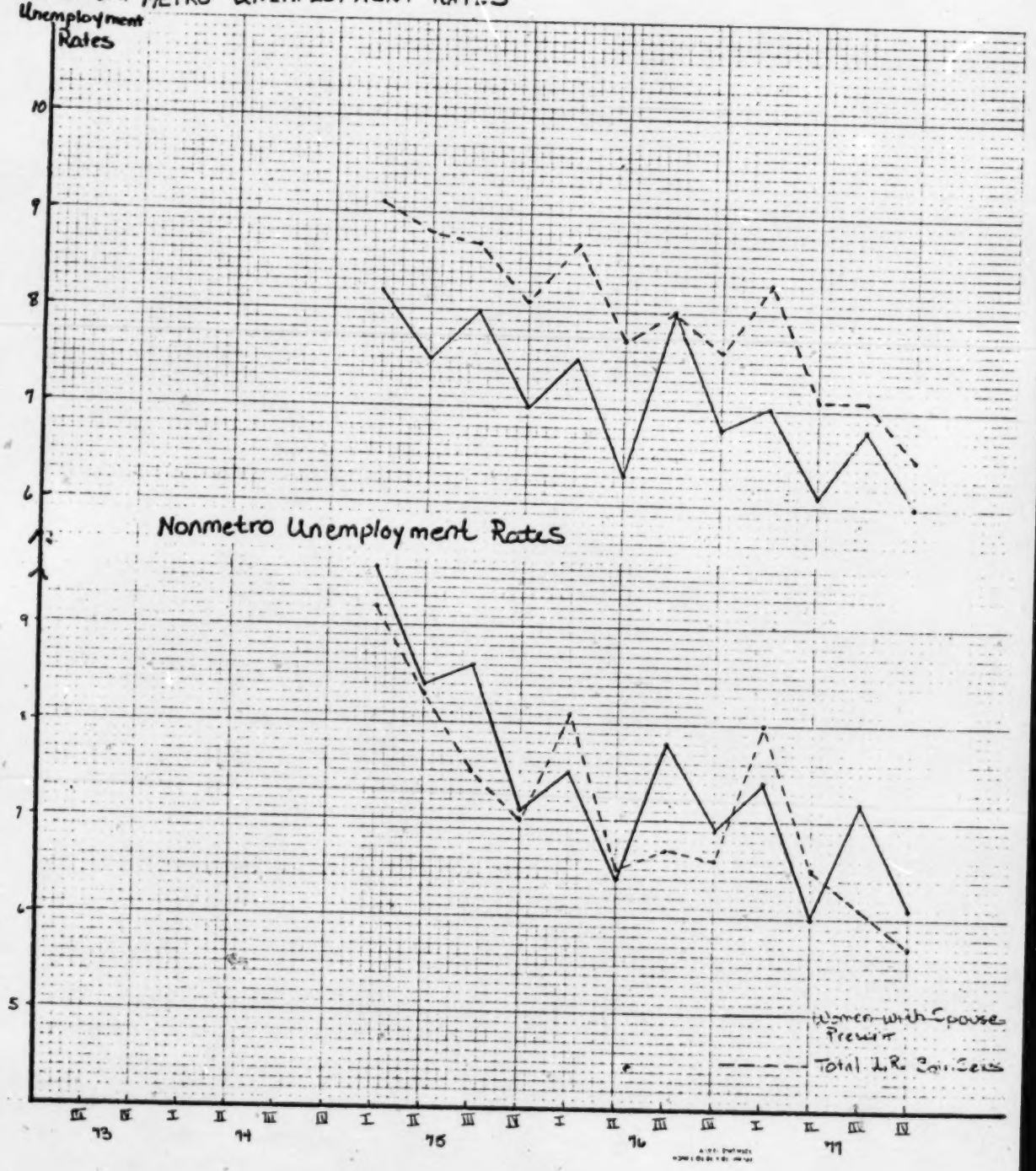
Summary and Conclusions

Although fluctuating within the recessionary period, labor force participation of both metro and nonmetro area women continued to increase from 1973 through 1976. It is, however, the differences between metro and nonmetro areas in patterns of and underlying reasons for fluctuations throughout the cycle which will be important to policy makers.

With one exception in the first quarter of 1975, metro women increased their labor force participation while nonmetro women's activity was more volatile. The composition of both the labor force and the occupational and industrial distribution of opportunities determine these metro-nonmetro variations.

Nonmetro areas labor force is composed of a higher proportion of women married with spouse present. When comparisons are made across residence on this segment of the labor force alone, greater similarities of labor force participation patterns are found between metro and nonmetro area women than when all women labor force participants are compared. However, in examining unemployment rates for women, married with spouse present, differences exist between metro and nonmetro women. In metro areas, the unemployment rate for women married with spouse present is consistently below the general unemployment rate while in nonmetro areas no such relationship exists. (See Figure 5)

FIGURE 5. METRO UNEMPLOYMENT RATES



Differences in unemployment rates result in large measure from variations in the occupational and industrial structure of opportunities. While the industrial and occupational structure of nonmetro areas provides opportunities for employment of relatively unskilled and new entrants to the labor force, it further influences job stability during a recessionary period.

Because of the heavy concentration of nonmetro female employment growth in manufacturing, it is germane to examine the employment change in manufacturing from late 1974 to the end of 1976. While total nonmetro employment increased during this time period by 1,317,000, manufacturing employment actually declined by 80,000. Another study shows that manufacturing's share of national employment:

> . . . dropped from 30 percent in 1947 to less than 24 percent in 1970. While manufacturing is still the largest single employer of any industry, by 1985 the trade and services (per se) industries are expected to equal or exceed manufacturing's share of employment. And of the ten industries projected to show the largest increases in number of jobs to 1985, all are non-manufacturing, and only one-- construction-- is in the general goods producing sector. The employment increases in these industries--led by state and local government, business services, trade, and health services--are expected to account for over 83 percent of the additional jobs in the total economy between 1968 and 1985. 11/

While availability of jobs in manufacturing contributes to increased labor force participation, many of these jobs are subject to spells of unemployment with changes in general economic conditions. Nonmetro areas are witnessing tremendous increases in the number of women employed but these increases have resulted in greater concentrations of females in clerical, operative and service related occupations.

The types of jobs which women are entering in nonmetro

areas have implications for their job employment stability, career advancement and wages. Some clerical and many operative occupations are often thought of as "dead end" jobs. "The primary sector offers high wages and formal job hierarchies, while jobs in the secondary sector pay low wages and offer little chance for advancement." 12/ A greater proportion of nonmetro than metro females are entering into these secondary sector jobs. Metro area women are making slightly greater strides toward professional and managerial careers.

Valerie Kencade Oppenheimer suggests that:

> It was not the increasing supply of women workers but the increasing demand for them that was the major causal influence since 1940 on women's rising labor force participation rates. Basic industrial and occupational growth trends, particulary in those occupations and industries that traditionally were major employers of women led to increased demand for female workers. The fact that single and young women constituted a stationary or declining fraction of the population during the period explained the expansion of demand to include married and older women, and this facilitated an increase in their participation. Once in the labor force they stayed in, both because of their own inclinations and because employers became aware of the productive contribution they were making. 13/

So that while increases are being realized both in the labor force participation and employment of nonmetro women, manpower development specialists must be aware of the special needs of this important labor source. Without attention to job training and skills development, women may become more heavily concentrated in jobs as operatives, service and clerical workers, many of which are characterized by lower levels of pay and little chance for advancement.

Appendix

Table 1 — Distribution of Employment Growth by Industry for Metropolitan-Nonmetropolitan Residence, 1960 to 1970

Industry	Metropolitan	Nonmetropolitan				
		Total	Urbanized	Sparsely Populated	Adjacent	Nonadjacent
Extractive 3/	.4	-6.1	-5.3	-14.3	-4.9	-7.6
Construction	.9	.8	.7	.9	.9	.7
Durable Manufacture	6.4	12.7	12.7	12.5	13.2	12.0
Nondurable Manufacture	.7	14.2	12.8	26.8	13.3	15.3
Transportation	4.1	1.5	1.6	.6	1.6	1.4
Trade 4/	20.0	16.3	16.6	14.3	16.2	16.5
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	7.9	5.0	4.9	5.3	5.1	4.8
Business/Repair/Services	4.1	1.7	1.8	1.3	1.8	1.7
Personal Services	-4.7	-8.0	-7.9	-8.7	-6.5	-9.8
Entertainment/Recreation	.7	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5
Professional Services	43.3	44.9	45.1	43.1	42.4	48.0
Public Administration	4.2	2.9	2.8	3.3	3.0	2.7
Not Reported	12.0	13.6	13.5	14.5	13.3	13.9
Total All Industries	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census of Population

Appendix Table 2 - Distribution of Employment Growth by Occupation and Residence, 1960 to 1970.

Occupation	Metropolitan	Nonmetropolitan				
		Total	Urbanized	Sparsely Populated	Adjacent	Nonadjacent
Professional/Technical	20.8	15.0	15.4	10.4	14.8	15.3
Managerial/Administrative	3.0	2.7	2.7	2.5	2.7	2.8
Sales	5.2	.8	1.2	-3.0	1.3	.3
Clerical	42.9	35.1	35.7	33.1	34.5	35.8
Craftsmen	2.6	4.6	4.5	5.5	4.5	4.7
Operative	3.7	20.2	18.7	33.0	19.5	21.0
Labor (ex. Farm)	1.7	3.2	3.0	4.6	3.1	3.3
Farmer	-.2	-2.5	-2.0	-5.6	-2.1	-2.9
Farm Labor	-.2	-5.0	-4.4	-10.6	-4.0	-6.3
Service (ex. private household)	18.1	25.4	24.8	29.3	24.1	27.0
Private Household	-6.8	-10.6	-10.4	-11.7	-9.2	-12.4
Not Reported	9.3	11.1	10.9	12.5	10.8	11.6
Total All Occupations	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census of Population

FOOTNOTES

1. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, Census of Population, 1940 to 1970, and Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Current Population Survey: Annual Averages, 1977.

* Data from these two sources are not strictly comparable because they are derived from different sized sample populations. However, they provide an indication of the relative changes which have occured.

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4. Noval Glenn and Jon Alston, "Rural-Urban Differences in Reported Attitudes and Behavior" Southwestern Social Science Quarterly, No. 47, March 1967.

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9. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 263, "Fertility Histories and Birth Expectations of American Women; June 1971," USGPO, Washington, D.C., 1974.

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11. Stephen M. Smith and Glen C. Pulver, "Nonmetropolitan Job Creation in a Post-Industrial Society: Problems and Prospects," University of Wisconsin, Unpublished paper.

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13. Hilda Kahn with Andrew I. Kohen, "Economic Perspectives on the Roles of Women in the American Economy," Journal of Economic Literature, Volume XIII, Number 4, December 1975, p. 1252.